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THE MANOR PALACE, YORK.

On the dissolution of St. Mary's Abbey, as noticed in a former article, it was dismantled, and by order of Henry the Eighth a palace was built out of its ruins, the name of which was changed to the King's Manor, in order, say the historians of the city, "that the very name and memory of the abbey might be lost for ever." The king having established a council at York for the purpose of maintaining order in the northern counties, the manor was appropriated to the residence of the lords president. In 1541 King Henry visited York, and remained there twelve days, during which time the Manor House was probably his place of residence.

James the First, on his journey to London to take possession of the crown after the death of Elizabeth, arrived at York on the 16th of April, 1603. He resided at the Manor, and was entertained with great splendour by the lord mayor and corporation. His majesty was so well pleased with the honours paid him, that, at a public dinner given him by the lord mayor and citizens, he expressed himself much in favour of the city, seemed concerned that their river was in so bad a condition, and said it should be made more navigable, and he himself would come and be a burges amongst them. He also ordered the Manor House to be repaired, and converted into a royal palace, intending to use it as such upon his journeys to and from Scotland. There are still many testimonials of the prince's design, in arms and other decorations about the several portals of the building. It was still, however, used as the residence of the Lords President of the North, as long as

that office continued. The lords of the council met his majesty at York, and the state and dignity which he here took upon him formed quite a contrast to the comparatively rude habits of the Scottish kings. His majesty visited York again in 1617, when the Manor Palace became the scene of regal pomp and court festivities.

In 1633 Charles the First paid his first visit to York, while on his way to Scotland. Previous to the breaking out of the war between him and his parliament, the king summoned a great council of the peers, to be held in York, and subsequently, in the latter end of the year 1641, he took up his residence at the Manor Palace. Here he was attended by upwards of forty peers of the first rank, and the county levied a corps of six hundred men, who acted as his body guard. This court, which was very splendid, was not however constantly held at the Manor, but for a part of the time at Sir Arthur Ingram's house in the minster yard. The Earl of Strafford, as lord president of the north, also resided in the Manor Palace.

During the civil war the Manor was materially damaged. On the 14th of June, 1644, the Earl of Manchester's forces having undermined St. Mary's tower, Colonel Crayford, a Scotchman, sprung the mine with such effect that the tower was demolished, and a number of persons buried in the ruins. After this he made a breach in the wall in Mary Gate, which being practicable was entered by the rebels, who scaled several other walls, and took possession of the Manor. It hap-

pened to be Trinity Sunday, and most of the royalist commanders were at the cathedral; the republicans, however, who served in the Parliament army, thought this a good opportunity for making the attack, deeming that the Lord's day was the best time for doing, what they denominated, the Lord's work. Their triumph, however, did not on this occasion last long. The explosion of the mine alarmed the royal officers, who rushed to their posts, and a party of the garrison having got out by a private sally-port in the city walls, entered the Manor, and cut off the only way the enemy had to retreat. A smart rencounter took place on the bowling-green, but the rebels having fifty of their number killed, the rest (about two hundred and fifty) threw down their arms and submitted.

Cromwell visited York but once on his way to Scotland, and it does not appear whether he resided at the Manor.

In the reign of Charles the Second the city forfeited the good character for loyalty that it had acquired during the time of Charles the First, and there were continual bickerings between the court and the municipality. The king appointed a governor of York, and the Manor House was the residence of that officer. Lord Fretchville, baron of Stavely, was first appointed, and after his death Sir John Reresby succeeded him; he was the last governor of York, and the Manor Palace does not seem to have accommodated any public character since that period.

In the reign of James the Second a large room in the palace was fitted up and used as a popish chapel, where mass was celebrated openly; but on the landing of William, Prince of Orange, in 1688, the enraged populace resorted to this as well as to other Roman Catholic chapels: "They tore away all the pictures and images they met with, threw down the altars; and after stealing the books and vestments of the priests, exhibited them in different parts of the city, through the day: in the evening they publicly burnt them."

About the year 1696 the king's mint was erected in the Manor, and an immense quantity of gold and silver coin, bearing the letter Y for York, under the head of the king, was struck. At a later period the room used as the Roman Catholic chapel was converted into an assembly room for the use of the city; and still later it was appropriated to the use of the York Diocesan Society or National School.

After the Revolution the Abbey or Manor was granted on lease from the crown to different persons, until it passed into the Grantham family, with whom it still remains.

For the above historical details we are indebted to Mr. THOMAS ALLEN'S *History of the County of York*, as also to Mr. HARGROVE'S *History of the City*. The following concise description of this once regal dwelling is from the same authorities.

An old archway, once the entrance to St. Mary's Abbey from Bootham, opens into a court-yard, to the right of which is a stone wall, built probably prior to the abdication of James the Second, and having in its recesses enriched with arabesque work, and apparently designed for images. A part of the palace on one side of this wall is occupied as a private residence, and does not present to the observer any characteristic of its former importance. The principal entrance to the other part of the building, however, is extremely interesting; it displays over the doorway the royal arms, supported by carved columns, bearing various devices, with the initials I. R. near the bottom, and surmounted with a crown. A short passage leads to the inner court, now divided into two; and at this end of the passage the doorway is likewise ornamented with carved figures of justice, and other emblematical devices.

The first of the inner courts contains merely the modern entrances to two dwellings before referred to,

but in the second court are two ancient grand entrances into the palace. One of them was formerly the entrance to the council chamber. Over the old doorway still remain the arms and the several quarterings of the unfortunate Thomas, earl of Strafford, finely carved in stone, and placed there when that nobleman resided at the Manor, as lord president of the north. One article of accusation against this earl, who was beheaded in the reign of Charles the First, related to that coat of arms, stating, "he had the arrogance to put up his own arms in one of the king's palaces."

This other entrance seems to have opened into a large hall or vestibule, whence a second door led to a broad and handsome flight of stone steps, part of which yet remains. The stair-case conduce to the council-chamber, a spacious, lofty, and comfortable apartment, occupied, at the time of Mr. Hargrove's description, as a school-room. In an adjoining passage is a curious carved moulding on the wall, near the ceiling, in which is represented a dancing bear and several other grotesque figures.

To the door-way on the opposite side of the court-yard the ascent is by a large flight of stone steps out of the court, and over the door are the royal arms, in fine preservation, with the initials C. R. This door, which is now blocked up, opened into a noble apartment, which some suppose to have been the banquetting-room, but where tradition states several of the parliaments held at York to have been assembled. Formerly there was a communication between this apartment and the council-chamber, now occupied as work-shops. Beneath the reputed banquetting-room was the spacious kitchen, of which the immense fire-place and chimney yet remain.

I DESIRE for my friend the son who has never withstood his mother's tears.—LACRETELLE.

WHEN young persons who have been religiously educated become depraved in their moral feelings and licentious in their conduct, the vitiation of the imagination and of the social affections tends to obscure that internal evidence of the truth of Christianity which, to a mind not depraved, or perverted, is alone sufficient to command belief. And as the injunctions of the Bible, and its awful sanctions, are the principal restraints upon the passions, there is a strong motive for wishing to invalidate its authority: this motive may so far divert the attention from the direct evidence of revelation, and so fix it upon objections and difficulties, that, at length, a very sincere kind of infidelity may be produced, which may continue to infatuate the understanding to the last moment of life.—*Elements of Thought*.

#### CHINESE GRATITUDE.

AN English merchant, of the name of C—, resided many years at Canton and Macao, where a sudden reverse of fortune reduced him from a state of affluence to the greatest necessity. A Chinese merchant, named Chinqua, to whom he had formerly rendered service, gratefully offered him an immediate loan of ten thousand dollars, which the gentleman accepted, and gave his bond for the amount; this the Chinese immediately threw into the fire, saying, "When you, my friend, first came to China, I was a poor man, you took me by the hand, and assisting my honest endeavours, made me rich. Our destiny is now reversed; I see you poor, while I am blessed with affluence." The by-standers had snatched the bond from the flames; the gentleman, sensibly affected by such generosity, pressed his Chinese friend to take the security, which he did, and then effectually destroyed it. The disciple of Confucius, beholding the increased distress it occasioned, said he would accept of his watch, or any little valuable, as a memorial of their friendship. The gentleman immediately presented his watch, and Chinqua, in return, gave him an old iron seal, saying, "Take this seal, it is one I have long used, and possesses no intrinsic value, but as you are going to India to look after your outstanding concerns, should fortune further persecute you, draw upon me for any further sum of money you may stand in need of, sign it with your own hand, and seal it with this signet, and I will pay the money."—*FORBES'S Oriental Memoirs*.

\* HARGROVE'S *History of the City of York*.

## THE GRANITE QUARRIES OF ABERDEEN.

## II.

"As a building stone," says Dr. Knight, "the granite of Aberdeen is confessedly the best which our island affords. When finely dressed, its effect in buildings approaches to that of the best white marbles. It does not sully but with extreme slowness from the coal smoke of cities. Its tint, of a slight bluish white, is not liable to change from that alteration in the oxide of iron in the feld-spar of red granite which takes place in our climate, and by disintegrating the principal constituent of the stone, reduces it to a whitish powder. There may even be added an advantage of empirical origin; the expense of making ornaments in so hard a material being very great, a considerable simplicity is the general result, and much bad taste, in every freak of architectural deformity, is avoided."

Throughout Aberdeenshire the granite is extracted by blasting with gunpowder, conducted in the usual mode\*. The proprietors are generally careful to provide copper points to the steel borers and prickers, a precaution necessary to the prevention of those dangerous accidents to which the use of gunpowder exposes the workmen. In some of the quarries the more powerful fulminating powders of quicksilver have been tried, instead of gunpowder; but they failed, apparently from the action of these substances taking place with such velocity as not to generate a sufficient momentum. Nor have trials, made by fitting the bores with sand instead of the usual materials closely rammed down with bronze pointed tools, been found to answer with granite, though employed with some success with rocks of inferior hardness.

The really practical improvements in blasting have been made by increasing the width and depth of the bores. Some years ago the only *jumpers* (these are boring chisels driven by short-handed hammers) employed, were not more than an inch in diameter, and the holes generally from three to five feet in depth. In 1819 were introduced tools 2½ inches in diameter, and the bores were made to the depth of ten or twelve feet. By this new arrangement far larger masses of rock were detached, with such effect that the New London Bridge was supplied from the quarries which a few years before could not have furnished a single stone of the dimensions employed in its arches and piers. The entrance to Aberdeen from the south is by a bridge, of which the arch has a span of one hundred and thirty feet; when this bridge was erected it was with great difficulty that the stones for it were supplied, and no one, says Dr. Knight, can see that elegant bridge without remarking that the stones employed in its construction are too small for its great magnitude.

The separation of such large masses has required improved machinery for moving and transporting them: the only tool formerly employed was the quarry crow used as a lever; less than twenty years ago only one form of crane was used, and that of an imperfect description. New cranes of superior construction are now in common use, as also are screw jacks for lifting the greatest blocks of stone to small heights.

In the accounts of the building of the pier of Aberdeen by Smeaton, in 1779, the placing stones of two tons weight in that structure is stated as a very remarkable circumstance. Of late years the citizens of Aberdeen have been in the habit of seeing blocks of fifteen tons† and upwards passing through their streets.

With respect to the wages of the men employed at the quarries, Dr. Knight states that in 1835 the quarriers received from 10s. to 15s. a week; the blasters or firemen, 15s.; and that these prices were lower by one-fourth than they were in 1827. The masons who square the stone received 6d. per cubic foot, whereas a

few years ago it was 1s., but much of the decrease is to be ascribed to the greater expertness in working which they have attained.

The quarriers and the merchants in stone who employ them, distinguish several kinds of manufactured stone. Those which are in greatest demand, and are adapted to the pavement of the streets of London and other cities, are called "common sixes," because as they lie in a pavement their depth is only six inches; the superficial extent of each stone is about ten inches by six. The price of this sized stone at Aberdeen is 5s. per ton. As the stones increase in size they are called respectively "half sovereigns," "sovereigns," "cubes," and "imperials," and fetch proportionally higher prices. The freight of stone to London is about 8s. per ton, and the vessels which convey it take in ballast at London, and then repairing to Sunderland, receive at that port cargoes of coals for Aberdeen; by which means coals are sold in Aberdeen about five per cent. cheaper than if no granite were transmitted by the same shipping; and consequently the paving stone is afforded cheaper in London than if no coals were conveyed to Aberdeen.

In Aberdeen the foot pavements as well as the roads are of granite; but they are too rough to be agreeable to the pedestrian accustomed to the agreeable smoothness of the sandstone. Till within these few years a considerable quantity of granite for foot-pavements has been sent to London, but the quartzose rock from Yorkshire has gradually superseded it, little but kirbs and causeway stones being now in request. The reason why granite for the footways was rejected, was probably on account of the roughness of the dressing; they require to be finished with an axe dressing, in order to the comfort of the pedestrian, in those walks which still continue to distinguish our cities from most of those on the continent. The demand for granite for paving our streets has lately received a considerable check in consequence of the extensive adoption of wood-pavement; but the demand for granite as a building stone has been on the increase, and would, we should hope, counterbalance the loss from the other cause, while the demand for such large masses of stone would greatly tend to improve the skill of the quarriers.

Granite increases rapidly in price with its dimensions, as is the case with all mineral productions where size becomes of importance. Many stones of great magnitude have been supplied from the Aberdeen quarries, such, for example, as the pedestal of the bronze statue of the Duke of Bedford, in London, and the thick columns which are placed as piers in the vaults of the Custom House of London; such stones cost in the rough block at the quarries, from 5s. to 8s., and in some cases 10s. per cubic foot. The docks of the Naval Arsenal at Sheerness were supplied by the Aberdeen quarries, of which no less than 700,000 cubic feet of the red and blue squared granite were furnished at 4s. 11d. per foot, including the coasting duty; the contractors also agreed to furnish all the sizes required, at this price. At the time when the new hall of the Fishmongers' Company was about to be erected, a tender was made of the Aberdeen granite, to be delivered in London at the following prices:—

A stone of 15 tons weight, at 10s. 0d. per cubic foot.

"	12	"	9	0	"
"	9	"	8	0	"
"	6	"	6	0	"
"	5	"	5	6	"
"	3	"	4	6	"
"	2	"	4	0	"

The great competition which the Aberdeen quarries now have to sustain is with the large quarries opened at Hayter in Devonshire. This granite is of a good tint, and is a most valuable and durable stone; but being of larger grain it is of less absolute strength than the Aberdeen varieties of the same bluish appearance. The west side of the New London Bridge is of this

\* This mode is described in an article on Blasting Rocks, contained in *Saturday Magazine*, Vol. XXIII., p. 247.

† The bulk of a ton of granite is, on the average, very nearly fifteen cubic feet.



Devonshire granite, while the east side and the foundation stones are of Aberdeen granite.

The tool by which granite is easily shaped into simple forms is a pointed hammer chisel (called by the workmen a *pick*), armed with steel, and assisted by a considerable weight of metal, held in both hands like a hammer, but so managed as to allow of a rapid succession of blows, graduated according to the nature of the work. These blows descend upon the slope of the inclined plane at which the stone is placed, so that not only are the pieces struck off projected away from the labourer, but the impulses are given in directions most favourable for effect, as his body bends over the stone on which he is working. The degree of fineness of dressing has been carried much farther of late years than formerly, by what is termed *axe dressing*, with a hammer or iron having a blunted edge, approaching to the form of the tool after which it is named. In the first stage of dressing large pieces are struck off the stone with blunt-faced hammers.

The polishing of granite, and its application to the purposes of art, will be noticed in a separate article. Dr. Knight wishes the art of polishing granite to be encouraged as much as possible: "The demand for chimney pieces, not altered in colour by the smoke of coal fires, ornamental tables and vases, snuff boxes, and other trinkets, would," he says, "undoubtedly be great. Hitherto such articles have been confined to the imperial and royal residences of Europe, where they attract attention from their rarity; or to the Vatican Palace, which contains more polished granite in vases, tables, columns, slabs, such as line the splendid room entitled *Stanza de Papyri*, than all the rest of Europe can exhibit."

It is always interesting, and very often instructive, to compare our own processes in the useful arts with those of another nation. It is curious to notice the similarity of contrivance in working the same material adopted by different nations, which probably never had any intercommunication on the subject. The nature of the material will doubtless often suggest similar modes of working; but it is not always that nation which has made the greater advance in civilization, that discovers the best methods of using those humble but indispensable instruments, the hammer and the chisel.

The following is an abstract of Mr. Lay's description of the granite of the neighbourhood of Hong Kong, and the method adopted by the native artisans for working it.

At some remote period in the annals of geological mutations, the granite rock which formed the crust of the earth near the main-land of Cow-loon, seems, by some tremendous action from below, to have been raised up from its bed, riven into fragments of every kind of shape and dimension, and left in that new arrangement to undergo the weathering effects of the atmosphere. After the lapse of many years the smaller pieces were disintegrated into a quartzose sand, while the larger were merely rounded and polished by the same action which reduced their fellows to powder. We find these larger masses now imbedded in sand, and so far apart from each other, that the hewer can easily assail them with his hammer and wedges. What might therefore seem to be merely an accidental circumstance turns out to be a most beneficial arrangement. In attempting the removal of a scantling from one of the natural blocks, the workman relies mainly upon the effect of percussion. He first draws a line by means of an inky thread which he manages with his hand and his foot. He then proceeds with hammer and chisel to make holes about a foot asunder along the course of the line. This is a tedious affair. When the holes are deep enough he inserts a small wedge, which has been formed by a single blow from a large iron beetle. This is repeated till he has passed from one end of the line to the other, three or four times in succession, when to his surprise the stranger sees the hard rock part asunder as if it were only a piece of limestone. After a block has been removed in this

way he cuts it up into slabs by a renewed application of the hard chisel and the iron hammer, the wedge and the iron maul or beetle. These slabs are of course in a state which may be fairly called rough hewn, and consequently require to be smoothed and modelled after they have been conveyed to their destination. In effecting this object, the hammer and a blunt chisel are used, so that the various irregularities in the surface, and the parts to be removed, in order to give the slab the requisite shape and dimensions, are beaten off by a bruising operation. In this process the temper of the tools is of less importance, and thus the necessity of repeated grinding is dispensed with. The fragments which are broken off in hewing these granite blocks are used as ballast, not only by foreign ships, but also by native craft, which often carry several boxes filled with these pieces upon their decks, in order to adjust the equipoise of the vessel when it inclines too much, through the pressure of the wind upon the sails. These fragments are conveyed to the sea-side in wheel-barrow, remarkable for the simplicity of their form, and the rudeness of the workmanship. The wheel is high, and the handles are so wide apart, that it requires the utmost fathom of the arms to reach them: the attitude of a man guiding one of these vehicles down a steep path, appears very painful to the eye of a stranger.

DIFFERENT minds are distinguished by the different degrees of attention of which they are capable: thus, a sluggish mind is one in which the desire of knowledge is not great enough to rouse attention on ordinary occasions. A weak mind is one in which, though there may be much desire for knowledge—or curiosity—there is not force enough to fix or command the thought. In an ardent mind, great efforts of attention are produced by a high susceptibility to the stimulus of motives. But that is the most efficient kind of attention which seems to be the natural and constant habit of the mind, and to be independent of the excitement of motives. The vigour of the mind greatly depends upon the just balance between the desire of knowledge and that force in which consists the power of attention. Whether the mind be naturally strong, or weak, or sluggish, education tends to increase the power of attention; or, in other words, to give it more command of its thoughts—more active power, than it would otherwise have.

GOD hath made the present so much the exclusive object of our duty, that He will scarcely suffer even His best and wisest servants to gain reputation for skill and foresight by any conjectures concerning the times and seasons, which He hath reserved in His own power.—MILNER.

IN our progress from infancy to manhood, how much do our sentiments of beauty change with our years! how often, in the course of this progress, do we look back with contempt, or at least with wonder, upon the tastes of our earlier days, and the objects that gratified them! and how uniformly, in all this progress, do our opinions of beauty coincide with the prevalent emotions of our hearts, and with that change of sensibility which the progress of life occasions! As soon as any class of objects loses its importance in our esteem, as soon as their presence ceases to bring us pleasure, or their absence to give us pain, the beauty in which our infant imagination arrayed them disappears, and begins to irradiate another class of objects, which we are willing to flatter ourselves are more deserving of such sentiments, but which have often no other value but their coincidence with those new emotions that begin to swell in our breasts. The little circle of infant beauty contains no other objects than those that can excite the affections of the child. The wider range which youth discovers is still limited by the same boundaries which Nature has prescribed to the affections of youth. It is only when we arrive at manhood, and still more, when either the liberality of our education, or the original capacity of our minds, have led us to experience or to participate in all the affections of our nature, that we acquire that comprehensive taste which can enable us to discover and to relish every species of sublimity and beauty.—ALISON.

## ANCIENT CUSTOM OF HOLDING LANDS BY THE POSSESSION OF A HORN.

### II.

In a former article several examples of inheritance were given in which the horn was employed as a Charter, or Instrument of Conveyance. One of the most celebrated instances of this curious custom is afforded by the Manor of Boarstall, or Boarstall, in Buckinghamshire.

It is stated that King Edward the Confessor had a royal palace at Brill, or Breturl, in Buckinghamshire, to which he often retired in order to enjoy the pleasures of the chase in Bornwood. This forest was infested by a tremendous wild boar, the terror of the inhabitants; but one Nigel, a forester, having slain the furious beast, received, on presenting its head to the king, a grant of lands, namely, one hyde of arable land called the Dere Hyde,—a wood called Hule Wood,—and the custody of the forest of Bornwood to himself and his heirs, by the service of the horn called the Charter of the Forest, paying ten shillings per annum for the land, and forty shillings for the custody of the forest, the king reserving the rights of herbage and hunting. On this land Nigel built a mansion called Borestalle, in memory of the slain boar.

In the Chartulary of Boarstall (a large folio vellum book containing transcripts of charters and evidences relating to this estate, supposed to have been written in or before the reign of Henry the Sixth), is a view of Boarstall house and manor, having, in the foreground, the figure of a man kneeling, and presenting the head of a boar, on the point of a sword, to the king, who gives him a shield of arms, namely, argent, a fess gules, between two crescents and a horn. The following is a fac-simile of the group in question.



THE PRESENTATION OF THE BOAR'S HEAD.

The scene of the presentation of the boar's head was carved on a bedstead in the ancient house of Boarstall. The same armorial bearings were, in 1685, to be seen in the windows of the same house. The original horn and charter, under the name of Nigel's horn, continued to remain in the possession of the Lords of Boarstall. It is described as being "tipped at each end with silver, gilt, and with wreaths of leather to hang about the neck:" there was also an ancient brass ring, bearing a rude impression of a horn, with a plate, also of brass, having a horn engraven upon it, and smaller plates with "flowers de luce," which are supposed to have been the arms of Lisures, who was an intruder on this estate at, or soon after, the Conquest. He, and some of his successors, not only claimed possession of Boarstall, but also the custody of Bornwood; and one of the Lisures caused it to be certified that, being forester in fee to the king, he was, by his office, obliged to attend his majesty in the army well fitted with horse and arms, his horn hanging about his neck.

In the year 1773, this horn and its appurtenances, as represented in the annexed cut, was in the possession of

John Aubrey, Esq., son and heir of Sir Thomas Aubrey, Bart., to whom this estate descended, without alienation, or forfeit, from before the conquest, by several heiresses from the family of Nigel to that of Aubrey.



THE BOARSTALL HORN.

The horn is supposed to have belonged to the bison, or buffalo: it is dark in colour, and variegated and veined like tortoise-shell. It is two feet four inches in length on the convex band, and twenty-three inches on the concave. The inside, at the large end, is three inches in diameter, being perforated there so as to leave the thickness of only half an inch for about three inches deep; but farther in it is thicker, being not so much or so neatly perforated.

We conclude this notice of the horn as an instrument of conveyance, by a curious extract from the will of Thomas, earl of Ormonde, dated 31st of July, 1515. That nobleman says: "When my lorde, my father, whose soul God assoile, left and delivered unto me a lytle whyte horne of ivory, garnished at both thendes with gold, and corse thereunto of whyte sylke, barred with barres of golde, and a tyret of golde thereupon, which was myn ancestours at fyrst time they were called to honour, and hath sythen continually remained in the same blode, for wych cause my seid lord and father commanded me upon his blessing, that I should doo my devoirs to cause it to contynue still in my blode as far furth as that myght lye in me soo to be the honor of the same blode." He then gives special directions to his executors for the disposal of the horn.

Our chief authorities for most of the details of these two notices are several papers on the subject in one of the early volumes of the *Archæologia*, and Mr. Lipscombe's *County History of Buckinghamshire*.

THE causes which contributed, at the first, to superstition, might conduct in after times to science. The Greeks, in their social infancy, sought agents for their awe in nature; so as they advanced to maturer intellect, it was in nature that they sought for the causes of effects that appeared at first supernatural. And, in either stage, their curiosity and interest are excited by the phenomena around them—the credulous inventions of ignorance gave way to the eager explanations of philosophy. Often in the superstitions of one age, lies the germ that ripens into the inquiry of the next.—*Athens, its Rise and Fall.*

WHAT grace, what noble propriety do we not feel in the conduct of those who exert that recollection and self-command which constitute the dignity of every passion, and which bring it down to what others can enter into! We are disgusted with the clamorous grief, which, without any delicacy, calls upon our compassion with sighs and tears, and importunate lamentations. But we reverence that reserved, that silent and majestic sorrow, which discovers itself only in the swelling of the eyes, in the quivering of the lips and cheeks, and in the distant, but affecting coldness of the whole behaviour. It imposes the like silence upon us; we regard it with respectful attention, and watch over our whole behaviour, lest, by any impropriety, we should disturb that concerted tranquillity, which it requires so great an effort to support.—*Theory of Moral Sentiment.*

OF BOOKS PRIOR TO THE INVENTION  
OF PRINTING.

## III.

OUR own country has had to sustain many rude shocks and grievous impediments to the progress of letters, some of which have afflicted her in common with the rest of Europe, and others have been more peculiarly her own.

Whatever learning the Druids may have possessed among themselves, the mass of the Britons were in a state of utter ignorance at the period of the invasion of the Romans; but the civilizing effects of the example of their conquerors, and of the Christian religion introduced by them, seem to have soon become perceptible. Agricola declared the British youth surpassed those of Gaul in knowledge and intelligence; and so generally was the Latin tongue cultivated, that Gildas remarks that the island should rather have been termed Roman than British.

When their own necessities compelled the Romans to concentrate their strength, and abandon their colonies, many of the most learned of the Britons accompanied them. The priests left behind, according to Gildas and Bede, gave way to the most dissolute mode of life, neglected the schools, and were only active in the promotion of heresies. With so corrupt a state of things as this, to which the confusion and destruction of all monuments and institutions of letters by the incursion of the Picts and Scots were added, we are not surprised that no name of note in letters appeared during the sixth century, and that what little glimmering of learning yet remained was confined to Wales and Caledonia. The Saxons, being Pagans, destroyed, wherever their arms prevailed, all traces of Christianity, and it was not until their conversion in the seventh century that any tranquillity began to be established; but, after that period, the schools established at Canterbury and other places, and the intercourse with Rome, began to produce their effects; so that the seventh and eighth centuries were not even characterized by such utter darkness as prevailed over the rest of Europe. Alfred, referring to this period, describes it as one of enlightenment compared to his own. Much of this was due to the fact of the Venerable Bede, the great luminary of the Christian world, having flourished at this epoch; and Malmsbury justly considered his death (A. D. 735) as a fatal blow to the cause of learning in England. Many of the manuscripts of this period, still extant, are written in a beautiful hand, and Bede says he knew many of the students from the schools established by Theodosius, the successor of Austin, who could express themselves fluently in Greek and Latin.

During, and a little after, the period we are now considering, Ireland enjoyed a great reputation for the proficiency of her scholars, especially in ecclesiastical knowledge. It was resorted to from all countries, and contributed some eminent characters, as Alcuin, the preceptor of Charlemagne, and John Scott. The incursions of the Danes in the ninth century were again the means of plunging England into confusion, from which soon resulted general ignorance and neglect of letters.

The noble exertions of Alfred for the recovery of his country, under circumstances apparently so desperate, have ever endeared him to all posterity as one of her greatest benefactors. His invitations to the learned of all countries, establishment of schools, honouring learning by preferments before unknown to it, his translations and dissemination of various works, his compulsory system of education for the children of the higher classes,—gave such an impulse to the cause of learning, that, whereas when he commenced his reign, he scarce could find a priest capable of reading the service in his native tongue, or translating the simplest piece of Latin, at his death the clergy had become a respectable and even learned body. The intestine discords, and the

renewed incursions of the Danes which succeeded, prevented the influence of this great man becoming permanent, (although some of his early successors offered some encouragement to learning,) and this country participated fully in the miseries of the dark or "iron" age, as the tenth century was emphatically termed. After the Danes had secured predominance, they relaxed in their persecutions of learning, and even established schools and restored Oxford, which, founded by Alfred, had been burned during ensuing commotions. Edward the Confessor also gave considerable encouragement to learning; and Ingulphus tells us that while at Westminster School, preparing for Oxford, he was examined by Edgitta, Edward's queen, as to his proficiency in classics. Still, if we are to credit William of Malmsbury, prior to the Conquest, learning had become almost extinct in Britain; the clergy could scarcely stammer through the service, and he who knew a little grammar was esteemed learned. Lanfranc found ignorance so prevalent in the English monasteries, that he ordained each monk should be compelled to study a book delivered to him within the year. William the Conqueror was a great encourager of learning, conferring the highest posts and honours on men of great acquisitions. One hundred monasteries were established between 1066 and 1216; and a library was considered to be so essential an appendage, that "a convent without a library is like a castle without its armoury," became a proverb. The Abbey of Croyland\*, only twenty-five years after the Conquest, contained nine hundred volumes. Some of the immediate successors of the Conqueror, as Henry Beauclerc, and the Plantagenets, were also patrons of letters; but the progress was anything but progressive. War in the form of a disputed succession, and the unprofitable contests with France, forbade that it should be so; and it had been so far from being the case, that the period between 1399 and 1485, though heralding in the revival of letters in the rest of Europe, was for us one of the darkest.

Mistaken religious zeal has led to a destruction of ancient manuscripts, nearly as fatal as that resulting from the confusion of war, and the irruption of barbarian nations. When the early Christians obtained possession of the Pagan temples, to which collections of books were frequently attached, they too often condemned these treasures to the same destruction that attended the idol inhabitants. Antonius mentions as highly honourable to the memory of Gregory the Great, that he had destroyed so many copies of Livy, and other profane writers, and that he had interdicted a bishop from teaching the classics, saying that the same lips should not utter the praises of Christ and of Jupiter. At the dissolution of monasteries by Henry the Eighth, says Ashmole, a red letter or a diagram was considered as sufficient to condemn a book as popish and diabolical, while the costly covers were frequently torn off, and carried away, and their more valuable contents thrown on one side as worthless. "To destroy without consideration," says Bale, "is and will be unto England for ever a most horrible infamy among the grave seniors of other nations. . . . I know a merchant-man that bought the contents of two noble libraries for 40s.: a shame it is to be spoken. This stuff has he occupied instead of grey paper, and yet hath he store enough for many years to come." A portion of the magnificent library presented by Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, to the University of Oxford, was destroyed by visitors in the reign of Edward the Sixth, as the ornaments and illuminations of some of the splendid copies it contained were supposed to resemble popish missals and mass-books. The Puritans also subsequently destroyed all the ancient classics, and all manuscripts supposed to relate to the Catholic religion, that fell in their way.

The revival of literature from the state of abject

\* See *Saturday Magazine* Vol. III., p. 148.



degradation into which it had fallen, is a subject full of interest, not only from the completeness and rapidity with which the restoration took place, but also from the nature of some of the causes which led to its accomplishment. After the transference of the seat of government from Rome to Constantinople, this latter city became the chief centre of attraction for all those imbued with the love of letters; and even when the darkest clouds of ignorance shrouded Western Europe, rays of light still emanated from the East. The learned Greeks who came hence from time to time, served to impart a love of letters to many of the leading inhabitants of the Italian cities, while at a still later epoch their dispersion over Europe by the taking of Constantinople by the Turks, encouraged the literary enthusiasm which the labours of Petrarch and his contemporaries had served to excite. An ardent zeal for copying the ancient classics now manifested itself, and what had been before so slowly and sparingly performed by the monks, now took on all the activity consequent on its having become an important branch of trade.

To the indefatigability of Petrarch the first impulse in forwarding this good work is entirely due. He ransacked the monasteries in France, Italy, Germany, and Spain, for the neglected treasures of antiquity they contained, and he became as it were a uniting bond or link between the celebrated literary characters of all countries. His contemporaries, as he did himself, deemed that his labours in this field were those which best entitled him to the gratitude of posterity. Boccaccio's enthusiasm was directed into the same channel; and not only did he labour for the recovery of the manuscripts, but, for the instruction of his countrymen in the Greek language, to which end he established a professorship at Florence, to which he brought one of the most learned of the Constantinople Greeks. Some years after, the learned Poggio entered into this field of investigation, and continued for nearly fifty years an industrious labourer therein; to him we owe the recovery of some of the most valuable of the classical works of antiquity. Cosmo de Medici contributed both his wealth and influence to the furthering of these researches. "The father of a line of princes," says Gibbon, "whose name and age are almost synonymous with the restoration of learning; his credit was ennobled into fame; his riches were dedicated to the service of mankind; he corresponded at once with Cairo and London; and a cargo of Indian spices and Greek books were often imported in the same vessel." However later researches may have improved upon them, it is unquestionably to the labours of Petrarch, Poggio, and their contemporaries, we owe the first intelligible texts of the ancient classics. What Petrarch began in the fourteenth century, was zealously continued by others during the fifteenth. The lives of many Italian scholars were devoted to the recovery of lost manuscripts. The discovery of a new manuscript, says Tiraboschi, was looked upon almost as the conquest of a kingdom would be; and, he adds, it was in Italy, or by Italians, that the classical authors were chiefly discovered, by them were they first amended and printed, and first collected in public libraries.

So ignorant or supine had been the monks, as to the literary treasures their monasteries contained, that the ascertaining these now became a work of incredible difficulty. Scattered over various countries, the works were only to be assembled together at an enormous outlay of money, and expenditure of time; and Petrarch, although constantly travelling, required several years to complete a collection of Cicero's works. Then came the labour of copying and revising, to correct the numerous errors of former transcribers, and expunge the interpolations, and the no less necessary work of supplying indexes and notes. However, industry and enthusiasm surmounted every obstacle; numerous corrected copies were supplied, public libraries opened, and a general

craving for letters excited, when the only means of supplying the approaching increasing demand, the *printing press*, was discovered.

So great, says an able writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, was the zeal of these early discoverers, they ransacked libraries with such unwearied industry, employed so many active assistants, offered such liberal rewards, and paid such large prices, many of them being men of weight and influence, that it is difficult to suppose any manuscripts of importance have escaped their researches. The subsequent examination, in even remote regions, has commonly caused disappointment, and led to the belief that the agents of these men had even extended their researches to places most likely to have escaped their scrutiny.

It is possible, however, that some works may have escaped detection, in consequence of their having been frequently copied into a volume containing others of a very opposite character; either because their respective lengths, or the scarcity of material, were supposed to render this desirable. But a still greater number of works of a very opposite character were often bound up together, just as in our own day volumes of pamphlets are sometimes made up. The binding of one work with another, perhaps of greater value, has already been alluded to.

But it is from the examination of *palimpsest* manuscripts that the chief discoveries in more modern times have been made. A palimpsest, derived from two Greek words signifying rubbed or cleaned again, means a parchment from which the original writing has been erased or washed off, and other writing placed upon its site. The practice, originating in the expensive nature of parchment as a material for writing on, was known to the ancients. Cicero, addressing a person who had employed it, says he is surprised that he has become so far reduced as to possess not even paper; and to another he expresses his hopes that he had not erased his letters to substitute his own. Such erasures abounded in the Middle Ages, and many a monkish legend has displaced an old classic. "The tirades of Cyril or of Jerome, or the tawdry eloquence of Chrysostom, are perhaps firmly established in quarters from whence the margites of Homer, or the comedies of Menander, were miserably dislodged\*." By the aid of a solution of galls, and other means, the original writing in several of these palimpsests has been restored; and in this way Angelo Mai, librarian of the Vatican, recovered several valuable pieces†. The influence of the Mohammedans upon the revival of learning is both an extraordinary and important phenomenon. Mahomet and his successors were ruthless persecutors of learning, and the destruction of the library at Alexandria has ever remained a stigma upon the name of the Arabs: yet this very people, as early as the eighth century, having, during some of their conquests in the Asiatic provinces, met with some Greek books, became enamoured of their contents, and henceforth the protectors and encouragers of literature, to a then unexampled extent. The caliph Haroun al Raschid, his historians tell us, never travelled without being accompanied by a crowd of learned men; but his son Mamoun must be considered as the true father of letters among the Arabians. He assembled men of learning from all countries, and desired his lieutenants and generals to exact tributes in books, rather than in treasure, from the conquered. Hundreds of camels entered Bagdad, laden with literary stores, and, whatever of these seemed conducive to the welfare of his people, he ordered to be copied and translated. Thus the knowledge of antiquity which had become well nigh lost to the Western world, was by the exertions of this extraordinary people preserved and restored. In the West, says Sismondi, life

\* *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. XLVIII., p. 348.

† For a further account of *palimpsests* see a recent volume of this Magazine.

itself, menaced by famine, the sword, and feudal tyranny, could be scarce preserved; and yet at this very time, the Arabs, who, by their conquests and fanaticism, had so contributed to the destruction of science and letters, began in their turn, to encourage them. Only a century after the outrage at Alexandria, the Abbasides manifested their cultivated taste.

The zeal with which manuscripts were multiplied may be judged of by the collections at Tunis, Algiers, and Fez, as by those remaining in the Escorial. The court of Mamoun more resembled an academy than the central point of a warlike people. Schools and colleges sprang up on every side, and the same zeal was carried far beyond the frontiers of Asia. Benjamin of Toledo says, there were twenty schools of philosophy at Alexandria; and that Cairo, Fez, and other places, were as well provided for. But it was in Spain that the Arabic literature shone with the highest brilliancy, and made the greatest progress. While the rest of Europe was plunged in darkness, in that country seventy libraries were opened to the public, and the number of authors there produced was prodigious. This condition of literary splendour continuing among the Arabs from the ninth to the fourteenth or fifteenth centuries, must have had its influence in assisting in the restoration of letters in the West. Many learned men from England, France, and Italy, visited Spain, and drew from thence wherewith to benefit their respective countries: among these, Gerbert, afterwards Pope Sylvester the Second, was one of the most eminent. One of the benefits derived by posterity from the Crusades, in compensation for the evils attendant upon the adventurers engaged in them, was the increasing the facilities of intercommunication between the East and the West, and the dissipation of the ignorance of the latter by lights derived in part from the learning of the former.

The revival of learning seems to have proceeded with more tardy steps in England than elsewhere, and was scarcely apparent before the beginning of the sixteenth century. Prior to that period we had rather retrograded; for, while in the fourteenth century 30,000 students flocked to Oxford, in the fifteenth the number was diminished to 3000: and during that century no great names, such as had heretofore shed a light upon our darkest periods, are to be observed. Even somewhere after the invention of printing, the diffusion of both books and knowledge was very slow. The first considerable impulse to letters seems to have been given during the reign of Henry the Eighth, when Wolsey was their greatest patron. J. C.

"THE music of birds," as one hath well observed, "was the first song of thanksgiving which was offered on earth before man was formed. All their sounds are different, but all harmonious, and all together compose a choir that we cannot imitate." If these little choristers of the air, when refreshed by the streams near which they dwell, express their gratitude by chanting, in their way, the praises of their Maker and Preserver, how ought Christians to blush, who, besides the comforts and conveniences of this world, are indulged with copious draughts of the water of eternal life, if, for so many great blessings, they pay not their tribute of thanksgiving, and sing not unto the Lord the songs of Sion! "He that at midnight, when the very labourer sleeps securely, should hear, as I have often done, the clear airs, the sweet descants, the natural rising and falling, the doubling and redoubling of the nightingale's voice, might well be lifted above earth, and say, Lord, what music hast thou provided for the saints in heaven, when thou affordest bad men such music upon earth!"—BISHOP HORNE.

#### THE DOG.

As the dog alone, of all the brute creation, voluntarily associates himself with the conditions of man's existence, it is fair to presume also that he was the first, and therefore the oldest of man's companions: that to his manifold good qualities the first hunters were indebted for their conquest

and subjugation of other species. We do even now perceive, notwithstanding the advance of human reason and the progress of invention, that in a thousand instances we cannot dispense with his assistance.

If we still feel the importance of his services in our state of society, what must have been the admiration of man, when, in the earliest period of patriarchal life, he was so much nearer to a state of nature!—when the wild hunter first beheld the joyous eyes of his voluntary associate, and heard his native howl modulated into barking; when he first perceived it assuming tones of domestication fit to express a master's purposes, and intonate the language which we still witness cattle, sheep, and even ducks and hawks, learn to understand! What exultation must he have felt when, with the aid of his new friend, he was enabled to secure and domesticate the first kid, the first lamb of the mountain race!—when with greater combinations of force and skill between man and his dogs, the bull, the buffalo, the camel, the wild ass, and then the horse, were compelled to accept his yoke; and finally, when, with the same assistance, the wild boar was tamed, the lion repelled, and even attacked with success! Although the total development of canine education must have been the work of ages, yet that it was very early, however imperfect, of great acknowledged importance, is attested by the prominent station assigned to the dog in the earliest theologies of Paganism. We know that his name was given to one of the most beautiful stars among the oldest designated in the heavens, and that it served for the purpose of fixing an epoch in the solar year by its periodical appearance. Other constellations, nearly as old, were likewise noted by the name of dogs; and there are proofs, in typifying ideas by images representing physical objects, that the admiration of mankind degenerated into superstition, moral qualities of the highest order were figured with characteristics of the dog, till his name and his image became conspicuous in almost every Pagan system of theology.—COLONEL H. SMITH'S *History of Dogs*.

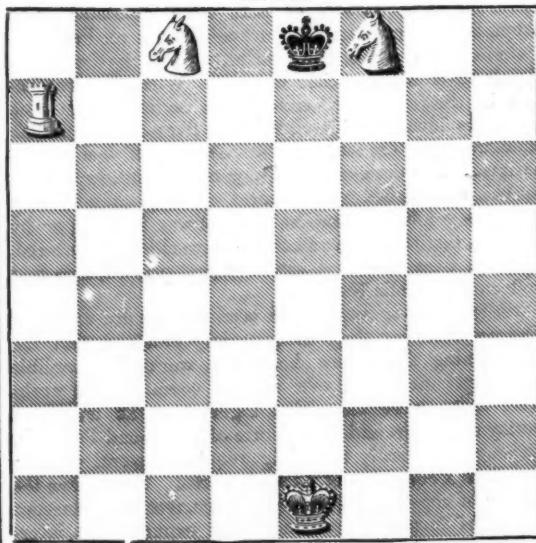
#### CURIOUS CHESS PROBLEMS.

##### VIII.

THE following ingenious problem is a variation, in a simpler form, of a problem by Damiano, in which White is required to check-mate his adversary in six moves, without being allowed to move the Rook more than once. The position of the pieces is the same as in the following problem, except that the Black King is on his Queen's square instead of being at home.

*White to move first, and to give check-mate in four moves.*

BLACK.



WHITE.